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A stage structured mosquito model incorporating effects of precipitation and daily temperature fluctuations

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Abstract

An outbreak of dengue fever in Guangdong province in 2014 was the most serious outbreak ever recorded in China. Given the known positive correlation between the abundance of mosquitoes and the number of dengue fever cases, a stage structured mosquito model was developed to investigate the cause of the large abundance of mosquitoes in 2014 and its implications for outbreaks of the disease. Data on the Breteau index (number of containers positive for larvae per 100 premises investigated), temperature and precipitation were used for model fitting. The egg laying rate, the development rate and the mortality rates of immatures and adults were obtained from the estimated parameters. Moreover, effects of daily fluctuations of temperature on these parameters were obtained and the effects of temperature and precipitation were analyzed by simulations. Our results indicated that the abundance of mosquitoes depended not only on the total annual precipitation but also on the distribution of the precipitation. The daily mean temperature had a nonlinear relationship with the abundance of mosquitoes, and large diurnal temperature differences can reduce the abundance of mosquitoes. In addition, effects of increasing precipitation and temperature were interdependent. Our findings suggest that the large abundance of mosquitoes in 2014 was mainly caused by the distribution of the precipitation. In the perspective of mosquito

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control, our results reveal that it is better to clear water early and spray insecticide between April and August in case of limited resources.

Keywords: Vector-borne disease; Intervention; Climate factors; Breteau index; Mathematical modeling

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1 1. Introduction

2 In April 2015, a widespread outbreak of Zika virus disease began in Brazil and
3 has spread to many other countries in South America, Central America, the
4 Caribbean and Mexico. In Brazil, by the end of 2015, the Brazilian Ministry of
5 Health estimated that 500,000-1.5 million people have been infected by the Zika
6 virus (Paploski et al., 2016), which is a mosquito-borne virus transmitted by *Aedes*
7 *aegypti* and *A. albopictus*, which also transmit other vector-borne diseases such as
8 dengue fever and yellow fever, while species of *Anopheles* are the principal vectors
9 of malaria and *Culex* species transmit West Nile virus and other infections.
10 According to reports of the World Health Organization (WHO), more than 2.5
11 billion people in over 100 countries, approximately one third of the world's
12 population, are at risk of contracting dengue alone and malaria causes more than
13 438,000 deaths every year globally, according to the 2015 World Malaria Report (
14 <http://www.who.int/malaria/publications/worldmalaria-report-2015/en/>).

15 As a main mosquito-borne disease, dengue fever can cause a severe flu-like illness
16 and sometimes causes a potentially lethal complication. It was first recognized in
17 the 1950s in the Philippines and Thailand and now up to 50-100 million infections
18 are estimated to occur annually in over 100 endemic countries. In China,
19 epidemics of dengue fever were first reported before 1940 (Qiu et al., 1993). In
20 1978, a sudden outbreak of dengue fever occurred in Foshan city of Guangdong
21 Province (Qiu et al., 1993) and it spread to seven adjacent counties and cities
22 where a total of 22,122 cases, including 16 fatalities, were reported (Guang et al.,
23 2000). Since then outbreaks of dengue fever have occurred frequently in southern
24 China. The outbreak of dengue fever in Guangdong province in 2014 has been the
25 most serious outbreak in China so far.

26 Mosquito-borne diseases are sensitive to climatic factors. Several studies have
27 been carried out on the correlation between mosquito-borne diseases and climate
28 using statistical methods and they showed significant associations between climatic
29 variables and disease incidence (Nagao et al., 2003; Depradine et al., 2004; Hsieh et
30 al., 2009; Do et al., 2014). Wu et al. found a negative association of dengue

31 incidence with temperature and relative humidity by using autoregressive models
32 (Wu et al., 2007). (Eastin et al., 2014) revealed that dengue cases increase a few
33 weeks after the daily temperature range remains within the temperature range
34 optimal for mosquito survival and transmission of the disease (Eastin et al., 2014).
35 In a study of an epidemic in Guangzhou, China, correlation analysis and time
36 series analysis of climate data and dengue fever cases showed a positive correlation
37 between dengue incidence and minimum and maximum temperatures,
38 precipitation and humidities, and seasonal fluctuations in immature densities of
39 *Aedes albopictus*, which were consistent with the dengue seasonality (Lu et al.,
40 2009; Luo et al., 2012). These results indicate that climatic factors have a complex
41 relationship with mosquito-borne disease transmission and so research on the
42 effects of climate factors on the abundance of mosquitoes and on the transmission
43 of mosquito-borne diseases is important.

44 Other studies have focused on mathematical models to investigate the
45 epidemiology of mosquito-borne diseases by incorporating climatic factors into
46 models. Some of these mathematical models are stage structured mosquito models
47 considering the population dynamics of mosquitoes and climatic factors are
48 incorporated into the reproduction, development and survival rates (Erickson et
49 al., 2010; Beck-Johnson et al., 2013; Jia et al., 2016). For example, (Gong et al.,
50 2011) established a climate-based model for West Nile *Culex* mosquito vectors in
51 2011. The model was validated with field data and the simulated abundance was
52 highly correlated with actual mosquito numbers. Other mathematical models of
53 disease dynamics are Susceptible-Exposed- Infectious-Recovered(SEIR) models,
54 with or without considering vectors (Feng et al., 1997; Esteva et al., 2001;
55 Derouich et al., 2006). Most of these models focus on the basic reproduction
56 number, examine force of infection or transmission dynamics (Marques et al., 1990;
57 Favier et al., 2006; Chowell et al., 2007; Wearing et al., 2006) and climatic factors
58 are incorporated into the transmission parameters or with a statistical model.
59 These papers usually focus on the sensitivity of the dynamics of mosquito
60 populations or disease transmission to climatic factors, and on seasonal trends of

61 the abundance of mosquitoes or disease outbreaks (Nago et al., 2007; Thammapalo
 62 et al., 2008; Li et al., 1985; Sanchez et al., 2006). Effects of the within- and
 63 between year spatio-temporal distributions of temperature and precipitation are
 64 rarely discussed. Besides, the effect of temperature is usually investigated under
 65 constant temperature conditions, namely the daily mean temperature. However,
 66 daily temperature fluctuations have shown to be important biologically
 67 (Carrington et al., 2013) and some studies have been published to investigate
 68 effects of daily fluctuations of temperature on the transmission parameters
 69 (Lambrechts et al., 2011; Liu-Helmersson et al., 2014). Therefore, in this paper, we
 70 mainly pay attention to a mosquito population model in relation to temperature
 71 and precipitation, which incorporates daily fluctuations of temperature. Based on
 72 previous research results and the dengue fever situation in Guangzhou in 2014, the
 73 objectives of this study were to improve knowledge of the relationships between
 74 climate and mosquito abundance, to explain the climatic reasons for the
 75 substantial outbreak of dengue fever in 2014 and to predict the effectiveness of
 76 potential control measures.

77 2. Methods

78 2.1. Model description

79 The life cycle of mosquitoes is composed of four distinct stages, including egg,
 80 larva, pupa and adult. The first three stages egg, larva and pupa are aquatic and
 81 defined as immature. So, our model was developed to encompass both immature
 82 and adult stages and is derived from a study of climate-based models for West Nile
 83 virus *Culex* mosquito vectors (Gong et al., 2011). Let M_{IM} be the number of
 84 immatures; M_A be the number of adults; W be the moisture index. The model is
 85 as follows:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{dM_{IM}}{dt} = b(t)M_A - d(t)M_{IM} - \mu_1(t)M_{IM} \\ \frac{dM_A}{dt} = d(t)pM_{IM} - \mu_2(t)M_A \\ \frac{dW}{dt} = \lambda(t) - \delta W \end{array} \right. \quad (1)$$

where $b(t)$ is the egg laying rate at time t ; $d(t)$ is the development rate at time t ; $\mu_1(t)$ and $\mu_2(t)$ are the mortality rates of immatures and adults at time t (as shown in Table 1); $\lambda(t)$ is the precipitation, and δ is the evaporation rate. As temperature has a major effect on insect development, the egg laying, development and mortality rates are considered to be temperature dependent. The form of these temperature dependent parameters were derived from (Gong et al., 2011), based on development results from laboratory studies. The explicit expressions for these parameters are as follows:

$$b(t) = b_0 + \frac{E_{\max}}{1 + \exp\left(-\frac{W(t) - E_{\text{mean}}}{E_{\text{var}}}\right)},$$

$$d(t) = A \frac{T(t) + K}{298.15} \frac{\exp\left(\frac{HA}{1.987} \left(\frac{1}{298.15} - \frac{1}{T(t)+K}\right)\right)}{1 + \exp\left(\frac{HH}{1.987} \left(\frac{1}{TH} - \frac{1}{T(t)+K}\right)\right)},$$

$$\mu_1(t) = 1 - \mu_{01} \exp\left(-\frac{T(t) - T_{01}}{v_1}\right)^2,$$

$$\mu_2(t) = 1 - \mu_{02} \exp\left(-\frac{T(t) - T_{02}}{v_2}\right)^2,$$

86 where b_0 is the baseline egg laying rate; E_{\max} is the maximum egg laying rate
 87 above the baseline; E_{mean} is the value at which the moisture index produces 50%
 88 of E_{\max} and E_{var} is the variance. The formula for $d(t)$ is based on the Sharpe &
 89 DeMichele equation (Rueda et al., 1990) parameterized for *Culex* with laboratory
 90 data by (Gong et al., 2011) but estimated for *Aedes* here, for which A is the
 91 development rate assuming no temperature inactivation of an enzyme critical for
 92 development; HA is the enthalpy of activation of the reaction that is catalyzed by
 93 the enzyme (cal mol^{-1}); HH is the enthalpy change associated with high
 94 temperature inactivation of the enzyme (cal mol^{-1}); K is the air temperature in
 95 Kelvin units; TH is the temperature where 50% of the enzyme is inactivated by
 96 high temperature. μ_{01} (μ_{02}) is the baseline mortality rate; T_{01} (T_{02}) is the optimal
 97 temperature for survival; v_1 (v_2) is the variance; $T(t)$ is the temperature at day t .
 98 Parameter definitions are shown in Table 2. Here, the birth rate of the immature is
 99 dependent on W , which can represent the environmental capacity, so we assume

100 that density dependent factors are implicit in the birth rate and density-dependent
101 competition induced death for the immature stage is not considered.

102 In many previous studies on the effects of temperature on mosquito abundance
103 or of the transmission of mosquito-borne diseases, the temperature $T(t)$ is usually
104 the mean temperature at day t . However, temperature may vary markedly within
105 a day. The impact of daily temperature fluctuations on dengue virus transmission
106 has been the subject of a study which revealed the importance of considering
107 short-term temperature variations when studying dengue virus transmission
108 (Lambrechts et al., 2011). So, in order to take the daily temperature variations
109 into consideration, we put the diurnal temperature range (DTR) into the model as
110 shown in (Lambrechts et al., 2011). Let x be the daily mean temperature and y be
111 the daily DTR, assume that there is a sinusoidal hourly temperature variation
112 between the two extremes ($x \pm y/2$) within a period of 24 hours, and we take 48
113 time points in the 24 hours with 30-min intervals. The temperature on the time t_i
114 in one day can be written as T_{t_i} .

115 $T_{t_i} = y \sin((t_i - 6)\pi/12)/2 + x, t_i = 0.5, 1, 1.5, \dots, 24, i = 1, 2, \dots, 48$. Then the
116 daily variation of the temperature dependent parameters can be taken into
117 consideration.

118 2.2. Data

119 2.2.1. Study area

120 Guangzhou is the capital of Guangdong Province in southern China which is
121 adjacent to Hong Kong, Taiwan and southeast Asia. Guangzhou is also the largest
122 city in Guangdong province which consists of 10 districts and 2 satellite cities. It
123 has a humid subtropical climate with an average annual temperature of 21.9°C
124 and the annual average rainfall ranges from 1370-2353 mm (Shen et al., 2015).

125 2.2.2. Weather data

126 The temperature and precipitation data for Guangzhou in 2014 and 2015 were
127 obtained from a historical weather website ([http://weather.org/weatherorg_](http://weather.org/weatherorg_records_and_averages.htm)
128 [records_and_averages.htm](http://weather.org/weatherorg_records_and_averages.htm)). Also, temperature data from three districts of

129 Guangzhou, including Fanyu, Huadu and Zengcheng, were obtained from the
130 China weather network, for the whole year of 2014. The temperature data include
131 the daily maximum and minimum temperatures, so the temperature at any time
132 within one day can be calculated by the daily mean temperature and the DTR
133 through assuming that there is a sinusoidal hourly temperature variation between
134 the two extremes.

135 *2.2.3. Mosquito density*

136 Dengue is a notifiable infectious disease in China and the dominant transmission
137 vector in Guangzhou city is *Ae.albopictus* (Luo et al., 2012). So, as the Breteau
138 index (BI) is the common index for *Aedes* density surveillance, the conventional
139 surveillance method has been used systematically in Guangzhou since 2002 (Shen
140 et al., 2015). Specifically, for each district in the city, one to three streets were
141 selected as the BI monitoring points and containers were checked in at least 50
142 houses every day. BI is calculated according to the number of positive containers
143 which contain mosquito eggs or larvae per 100 houses inspected. The mosquito
144 surveillance data BI of the 12 districts in Guangzhou were reported almost daily
145 by the Guangzhou CDC from September 22 to October 30, in 2014. The daily
146 mean BIs for Guangzhou and three districts in this period are shown in Table 3.
147 In addition, the BI in 2015 was also reported by Guangzhou CDC in the middle of
148 March and April, and every week between July 6 and December 29.

149 *2.3. Parameter estimation*

150 The BI data represent only the pattern of the immature abundances and so the
151 real numbers of immatures and adults cannot be estimated from our data.
152 Therefore, in this analysis more concern is placed on the pattern of the immatures
153 and adults which can describe the extent of the variation in the abundances of
154 mosquitoes in Guangzhou. Because of this, we fitted the model to the 2014 and
155 2015 BI data by the least squares method. Because low temperatures and short
156 photo periods can lead to diapause of the mosquito, we assume that the immatures
157 remain in that stage and the adults die from December to February (Lončarić et

158 al., 2013). So, our simulations begin from March in 2014 and with initial values
159 $(2, 0, 0)$. Here, in order to estimate the parameters without estimating the initial
160 values and to reduce the number of parameters needed to be estimated, we chose
161 the initial value of immatures to be similar to the initial data of 2015. The BI data
162 for Zengcheng, Fanyu and Huadu were used for model validation.

163 3. Results

164 3.1. Data analysis

165 In order to facilitate interpretation of the data and discussion of the paper's
166 results, we first simply compare and analyze the weather data and the BI data.
167 The mean of the daily maximum and minimum temperatures of Guangzhou and
168 the three districts are shown in Table 4. It indicates that the mean of the daily
169 maximum and minimum temperatures in 2015 were higher than those in 2014.
170 The daily mean temperature for each month of Guangzhou from March to
171 November in 2014 and 2015 are shown in Fig.1(a). It follows from this figure that
172 the daily mean temperature of Guangzhou from March to November is between
173 about 18°C and 30°C and the hottest months are from June to August. Besides,
174 the difference between the daily mean temperatures for each month in 2014 and
175 those in 2015 are also shown in Fig.1(b), which indicates that the temperatures of
176 April, July, August, September and October in 2014 were higher than those in
177 2015. Fig.2 shows the DTR of each month in 2014 and 2015. It indicates that the
178 DTR in Guangzhou ranges from about 6 to 10. In 2014, the DTRs of months from
179 July to October were larger than 9 and in 2015 DTRs of April, August, September
180 and October were bigger than 9. Also, the DTR in March was the lowest in both
181 2014 and 2015.

182 The daily mean precipitations for each month in Guangzhou from March to
183 November in 2014 and 2015 are shown in Fig.3(a). The data indicate that the
184 months with the most rainfall are May, June, July and August. Also, the
185 difference between the daily mean precipitations for each month in 2014 and those
186 in 2015 are shown in Fig.3(b). It follows from Fig.3(b) that the precipitations in

187 May, July and October in 2014 were lower than those in 2015 and precipitations in
188 the other months in 2014 were higher. Moreover, the total precipitation in these
189 nine months of 2014 and 2015 were calculated to be 1567.2 and 1736, which
190 revealed that the total precipitation in 2015 was larger than that in 2014.

191 The mean of the BI data in the 12 districts in 2014 and the data in 2015 are
192 shown in Fig. 4. The BI data show that the abundance of mosquitoes in 2015 was
193 much lower than in 2014.

194 *3.2. Results of Parameter estimation*

195 The results of parameter estimation are shown in Table 2. Also, Fig.4 shows the
196 goodness of the fit, in which the cycles represent the BI data and the lines show
197 the simulation result with estimated parameters. From Fig.4 we can see that the
198 correspondence between the simulation result and the data is good. Fig.5 shows
199 the data and simulation results for Zengcheng, Fanyu and Huadu. The red lines
200 represent the simulation results under the estimated parameters with Guangzhou
201 precipitation data and temperature data for the three districts, respectively. It
202 indicates that the simulation results for Zengcheng and Huadu fit the data well.
203 However, the simulation results for Fanyu are a little higher than the data, which
204 may be caused by the precipitation or the insect control measures carried out by
205 the local government.

206 Fig.6 shows the time varying parameters including (a) the development rate, (b)
207 the immature death rate and (c) the adult death rate. Fig.6 indicates that these
208 parameters oscillate with the temperature fluctuations. Specifically, the
209 development rate increases with increasing temperature, so that it reaches a peak
210 in summer. Moreover, the simulation results show that when the temperature is
211 high, the development time of the immatures is about 5 days, while when the
212 temperature is low the development rate may be a few dozen days. Moreover, the
213 death rates of the immatures and the adults are nonlinear functions of the
214 temperature. According to the parameter estimation results, we obtained optimal
215 survival temperatures for the immatures and adults of 16 and 21, respectively, as
216 shown in Table 2. It follows from Fig.6(b) and (c) that the mortality rate of the

217 immatures reach its maximum in summer. Also, it follows from Fig.6(c) that the
218 mortality rate of the adults reaches maxima in summer and winter. Therefore,
219 high temperatures in summer lead to high development and mortality rates.
220 Moreover, the egg laying rate is a function of the precipitation. So, due to the high
221 precipitation from May to August, the egg laying rate is also very high in summer
222 as shown in Fig.7. It also indicates that the egg laying rate fluctuates between 3.9
223 and 5.4.

224 In order to take the diurnal variation of the temperature into consideration, we
225 assume that there is a sinusoidal hourly temperature variation between the daily
226 maximum and minimum temperatures. So, effects of the DTR and the daily mean
227 temperature on the development rate, and mortality rates can be obtained as
228 shown in Fig.8. It follows from Fig.8(a) that the daily mean temperature affects
229 the development rate greatly and the DTR also affects the development slightly.
230 Increasing the daily mean temperature can lead to an increase of the development
231 rate while increasing the DTR can lead to a decrease of the development rate. In
232 Fig.8(b) and (c), the mortality rates of the immatures and the adults show a
233 nonlinear dependence on the daily mean temperature and the DTR. The mortality
234 rates of both immatures and adults increase as the daily mean temperature
235 increases when the mean temperature is above the optimal survival temperature
236 (16 for the immature and 21 for the adult), and they decrease as the mean
237 temperature increases when it is below the optimal survival temperature. Besides,
238 the mortality rates increase as the DTR increases, and the variation is greater
239 when the mean temperature is near the optimal survival temperature.

240 *3.3. Effects of climatic changes*

241 From Fig. 6, it is clear that the development and mortality rates of the
242 immatures and adults reach their maxima in summer. Also, the immature
243 development rate has a positive relationship with the abundance of mosquitoes,
244 while the mortality rate has a negative relationship with the abundance of
245 mosquitoes. To investigate the influence of changing the daily mean temperature
246 on the population growth of mosquitoes, we simulated the model under certain

247 daily mean temperature and precipitation conditions for 30 days and calculate the
248 difference between the end value and the initial value for the immatures, which can
249 represent the population growth of the mosquitoes. Positive values mean
250 increasing and negative values mean decreasing mosquito abundances. Fig. 9
251 shows the contour plot of the difference between the end value and the initial value
252 for the immatures with respect to the daily mean temperature and precipitation.
253 The DTRs in simulations were chosen to be 10 (a), 8 (b) and 6 (c) which are
254 common values for Guangzhou (see Fig.2). It follows from Fig.9 that the optimal
255 temperature for the population growth of mosquitoes is the maximum value.
256 Besides, temperature only leads to a positive population growth of mosquitoes if
257 the temperature is higher than 28(a), 29(b) and 30(c), when the precipitation is
258 larger than 4. So, the number of mosquitoes begins to decrease, when the daily
259 mean temperature is lower than these threshold values. Moreover, the threshold
260 temperature for the population growth of mosquitoes and the net growth of
261 mosquitoes within 30 days increase as the DTR decreases as shown in Fig.9. From
262 Fig.9(b) and (c), it is clear that when the temperature is lower than 27, increasing
263 temperature may first lead to a decrease and then an increase of the population
264 growth of mosquitoes. Furthermore, this figure also reveals that even if the daily
265 mean temperature is very high, the number of mosquitoes may also decrease when
266 the precipitation is very low. These results explain why the number of mosquitoes
267 decreases in March and April and why the peak of mosquitoes always appears in
268 late September in Guangzhou. Effects of increasing the daily mean precipitation
269 on the population growth of mosquitoes can also be obtained from Fig.9. In all of
270 the three figures, the higher the daily mean precipitation, the larger the number of
271 immatures. Also, the effect of increasing precipitation on the population growth of
272 mosquitoes is obvious when the temperature is very high.

273 However, the above result was obtained when the temperature and precipitation
274 were not changed with time. Taking seasonal changes into account, a high total
275 precipitation may not always lead to a large number of mosquitoes, although the
276 egg laying rate is a monotonic function of the precipitation. Actually, according to

277 the data, we found that the daily mean maximum and minimum temperatures and
278 the total precipitation for 2015 are all higher than those of 2014. However, the BI
279 of 2015 is less than that of 2014, indicating that high temperatures and
280 precipitation may not always cause a large number of mosquitoes. To establish
281 what accounts for the large number of mosquitoes in 2014, we conducted two
282 experiments as follows: (1) a simulation of our model with the temperature of 2015
283 and precipitation of 2014 as shown in Fig.10(a); (2) a simulation of the model with
284 the temperature of 2014 and precipitation of 2015 as shown in Fig.10(b).
285 Comparing Fig.10 with Fig.4, we can see that these two results are all lower than
286 the actual case in 2014. This indicates that distributions of both the temperature
287 and the precipitation are key factors which led to the large number of mosquitoes
288 in 2014. In particular, Fig.10(b) shows a large decline of the immatures' peak
289 compared with that in Fig.4, which reveals that the distribution of precipitation is
290 the main reason for the large abundance of mosquitoes in 2014.

291 To show the effects of climatic changes on the abundance of mosquitoes more
292 clearly, we investigated the effects of increasing the daily mean temperature or
293 precipitation for each month on the peak value of the immatures as shown in
294 Fig.11. Fig.11(a) was obtained by simulation based on the temperatures for 2014
295 and Fig.11(c) was obtained by simulation based on the temperatures for 2015.
296 Cycles of different colour show the peak value of each simulation by increasing the
297 daily mean temperature from the base line value (the data) to the base line value
298 plus 3, with interval 0.3. The daily mean temperature of only one month is
299 increased for every simulation and we consider 9 months from March to November.
300 It follows from these two figures that increasing the monthly mean temperature
301 can lead to an increase of the peak value except in April 2014. As shown in 11(b)
302 increasing the temperature in April 2014 has a nonlinear relationship on the peak
303 value of the immatures. This may be because the mean temperature and the DTR
304 in April 2014 were 23.3 and 6.7, respectively, which are similar to the case in
305 Fig.11(c). Moreover, increasing the temperature in June, July and August are the
306 most effective as this period is when temperatures and precipitation are highest.

307 However, effects of increasing the mean temperature of the same month in 2014
308 and 2015 were not the same, especially in March, April and May.

309 Fig.12 shows the effects of varying the daily mean precipitation for every month
310 on the peak value of the immatures. Fig.12(a) and (b) were obtained by simulation
311 based on the precipitation and the temperature in 2014 (a) and 2015 (b). Fig.12(c)
312 and (d) were obtained by simulation based on the precipitation of 2015 and the
313 temperature of 2014 (c) and 2015 (d). Cycles of different colour show the peak
314 value of each simulation by increasing the daily mean precipitation from the base
315 line value (the data) to 10 plus the base line value, with interval 1. Also, the daily
316 mean precipitation of only one month is increased for every simulation and we
317 considered 9 months from March to November. It follows from these two figures
318 that little increases of the daily mean precipitation in one month can lead to a
319 large increase of the peak value. Also, the effects of increasing precipitation in
320 different months are not the same. Comparing Fig.12(a)-(b) and (c)-(d), we find
321 that effects of increasing daily mean precipitation in every month are similar in
322 Fig.12(a) and (b), and in Fig.12(c) and (d). That is to say, effects of increasing the
323 daily mean precipitation of one month mainly depend on the distribution of the
324 precipitation during the whole year. Furthermore, it indicates that the distribution
325 of temperature has little influence on effects of increasing precipitation in different
326 months, but it has great influence on the peak value. Based on the precipitation of
327 2014, increasing the daily mean precipitation in March, April, June, July,
328 September and October have a large impact on the peak value for the immatures.
329 Increasing the daily mean precipitation for May and August are also influential
330 but the effects are relatively weak. However, based on the precipitation of 2015,
331 increasing the daily mean precipitation for March, April, July, August, September
332 and October are very effective, but the effect of increasing that of June is relative
333 weak. In particular, increasing the daily mean precipitation for May has almost no
334 effect on the peak value for the immatures. However, from Fig.3(b) we can see
335 that the precipitation of May 2015 is much larger than that in 2014. This may
336 explain why the BI of 2015 is less than that of 2014, although the precipitation of

337 2015 is larger than that of 2014.

338 3.4. *Effects of intervention*

339 The most common interventions in Guangzhou were clearing water and spraying
340 insecticide. Clearing water reduces the immature abundance and water levels,
341 thereby reducing adult abundance. Spraying of insecticide decreases the
342 abundance of adults almost instantly. In order to analyze the effects of these two
343 interventions, we investigated the peak value for the immatures under different
344 control schemes. Effects of interventions on the reduction of the adults were
345 similar, so these are not shown here.

346 To study effects of control measures and the optimal control time, we considered
347 the effects of control in different months on the peak number for immatures as
348 shown in Fig.13. Control measures are conducted once a week and last for one
349 month in each simulation. Fig.13(a) shows the effects of clearing water and
350 Fig.13(b) shows effects of spraying of insecticide on the reduction of the immature
351 peak value. Obviously, these two figures show that the higher the clearing rate or
352 the killing rate the more effective the result. Moreover, spraying of insecticide is
353 more effective than clearing water if the control measures are conducted between
354 April and August. Specifically, when the clearing rate is 0.3 the immature peak
355 value can be reduced to about 10, while this can be also reached if the killing rate
356 is 0.2.

357 Fig.13(a) also indicates that clearing water in March is the most effective
358 measure to reduce the immature peak number. However, implementing the control
359 measures in October has no effect on reducing the immature peak number because
360 the peak time is in September. It follows from Fig.13(b), that controlling adult
361 mosquitoes between April and August is the most effective measure. However, it is
362 not so effective in March, probably because there are few adult mosquitoes in
363 March.

364 **4. Discussion**

365 This paper examines the effect of climatic variation on the number of
366 mosquitoes and further explores the effectiveness of the most common
367 interventions: spraying of insecticide and clearing water to reduce the number of
368 immatures and minimizing the extent of mosquito breeding grounds. One of the
369 main focuses of this paper is on the reason why the abundance of mosquitoes was
370 so large in 2014 and further to give some indications of the effects of climate on
371 the population growth of mosquitoes. According to the results of some biological
372 experiments (Carrington et al., 2013), there is a negative impact of large DTR on
373 mosquito biology. So, we took daily temperature fluctuations into consideration in
374 this paper. We initially fitted the model to the real data for 2014 and 2015 and
375 validated the model using data from three districts in Guangzhou. With the
376 estimated parameter values, we analyzed the time varying parameters and
377 compared simulation results to study what led to the large number of mosquitoes
378 in 2014. In addition, effects of increasing the daily mean temperature and
379 precipitation were analyzed.

380 Results of parameter estimations indicated that the development and mortality
381 rates of the immatures and adults oscillate with the temperature fluctuations
382 frequently. Specifically, the development time of the immatures is about 5 days in
383 summer which is consistent with the result in (Gong et al., 2011) and it increases
384 with decreasing temperature. The mortality rate of the adults reached maxima in
385 summer and winter which led to a complex relationship between the abundance of
386 mosquitoes and the temperature. Effects of varying the daily mean temperature
387 and the DTR on these parameters are also shown in Fig.8 which indicated that the
388 development rate and the death rates increase as the DTR increases and effects of
389 varying the mean temperature also vary as the DTR varies. Therefore, these
390 parameters may have large and complex variations within one day and so cannot
391 be neglected.

392 We have data on the mean temperatures and the DTR for every month in 2014
393 and 2015. Also, the daily mean precipitation for each month can be obtained as

394 shown in Fig.3(b). Then, comparing the data of 2014 with those for 2015, we
395 found that the mean temperature and the total precipitation for 2015 were larger
396 than those of 2014, while the BI of 2015 was less than that of 2014. So, more
397 precipitation does not necessarily lead to more mosquitoes. Similarly high mean
398 temperatures do not always mean more mosquitoes, providing the rationale for the
399 analysis of the reason for the large abundance of mosquitoes in 2014. Our results
400 as shown in Fig.10 indicated that the large amount of mosquitoes in 2014 was
401 mainly caused by the distribution of precipitation, which is consistent with the
402 results in a previous paper (Cheng et al., 2016).

403 To make the relationship between the temperature, precipitation and the
404 abundance of mosquitoes comprehensive and clear, effects of precipitation and
405 temperature on the population growth of mosquitoes were also analyzed as shown
406 in Fig.9. The results indicated that increasing temperature may have a positive or
407 negative effect on the population growth of mosquitoes. This may be a reason why
408 some studies found a negative association of dengue incidence with temperature
409 (Wu et al., 2007) and some showed a positive correlation between dengue incidence
410 and temperature (Lu et al., 2009). Moreover, in Guangzhou, the temperature in
411 summer, when the daily mean temperature is around 30°C, is very beneficial for
412 the population growth of mosquitoes and temperature increases may thus have a
413 large effect on the abundance of mosquitoes as shown in Fig.9 and Fig.11. Besides,
414 our results also showed that a large DTR can reduce the population growth of
415 mosquitoes. This also agrees with the results of biological experiments (Carrington
416 et al., 2013).

417 Fig.9 also indicates that increasing precipitation has a positive effect on the
418 population growth of mosquitoes. However, effects of increasing precipitation also
419 depend on the daily mean temperature and the DTR. As shown in Fig.12, effects
420 of increasing precipitation in each month is very different in the case of 2014
421 compared with in 2015. In other words, the annual rainfall and temperature
422 distribution determines the impact of the monthly rainfall on the number of
423 mosquitoes. So our results show that there is no simple rule to compare the effects

424 of precipitation and temperature, because their effects are interdependent.

425 In this paper, the effectiveness of government control measures against
426 mosquitoes in Guangzhou, which are mainly spraying of insecticide and clearing
427 water to reduce the immatures and minimize the breeding grounds, were also
428 analyzed as shown in Fig.13. It reveals that killing adult mosquitoes and clearing
429 water are effective measures and spraying of insecticide from April to August is
430 more effective than clearing water. Also, effects of these two measures are different
431 according to their implementation times. It is better to clear water early and kill
432 the adults between April and August, in the case of limited resources.

433 Several studies have suggested positive associations between dengue and the
434 abundance of mosquitoes. So, further development of the model will incorporate
435 the transmission of dengue fever to investigate effects of mosquito abundance on
436 outbreaks of the disease and effects of climatic variability on the incidence of
437 dengue fever. In addition, this model can also be used to predict risk factors for
438 other vector-borne diseases.

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Table 1: Definitions of the parameters used in the model

Parameter	Definition
$b(t)$	the egg laying rate
$d(t)$	the development rate of immatures
$\mu_1(t)$	the daily mortality rate of immatures
$\mu_2(t)$	the daily mortality rate of adults
p	the diapausing rate
$\lambda(t)$	the total daily precipitation

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Table 2: Definitions of the parameters used in the model

Parameter	Definition (Units)	Value	References
b_0	the baseline egg laying rate	2.4337	estimated
E_{max}	the maximum egg laying rate above baseline	2.9147	estimated
E_{mean}	the value at which the moisture index produces 50% of E_{max}	0.0024	estimated
E_{var}	the variance	4.0471	estimated
A	the development rate assuming no temperature inactivation of the critical enzyme	0.1508	estimated
HA	the enthalpy of activation of the reaction that is catalyzed by the enzyme (cal mol^{-1})	39949.6	estimated
HH	the enthalpy change associated with high temperature inactivation of the enzyme (cal mol^{-1})	28007.4	estimated
K	the air temperature in Kelvin units	273.15	(Gong et al., 2011)
TH	the temperature where 50% of the enzyme is inactivated by high temperature	298.8704	estimated
μ_{01}	the baseline mortality rate of immatures	0.9514	estimated
μ_{02}	the baseline mortality rate of adults	0.5943	estimated
T_{01}	the optimal temperature for survival of the immature	16.0427	estimated
v_1	the variance for immatures	6.2841	estimated
T_{02}	the optimal temperature for survival of the adults	21.0372	estimated
v_2	the variance for the adults	13.4776	estimated
δ	evaporation rate	0.6094	estimated

Table 3: Mean values of BI for each district.

Area	$meanBI$
Guangzhou	14.8912
Zengcheng	15.2537
Fanyu	22.5935
Huadu	24.1395

Table 4: Mean of the maximum and minimum temperatures for each area from March to November.

Area	T_M	T_m
Guangzhou (2014)	30.0364	21.7091
Guangzhou (2015)	30.0655	21.9018
Zengcheng	29.6509	21.9491
Fanyu	30.2982	23.2727
Huadu	29.9273	22.6764

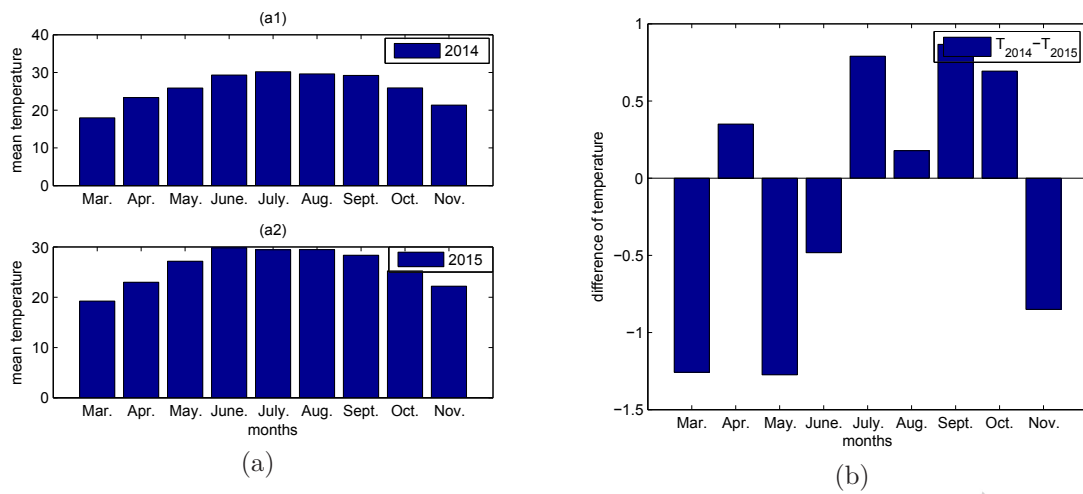


Fig. 1: (a) The monthly mean temperatures at Guangzhou from March to November 2014(a1) and 2015(a2). (b) The difference between the monthly mean temperatures in 2014 and those in 2015 from March to November.

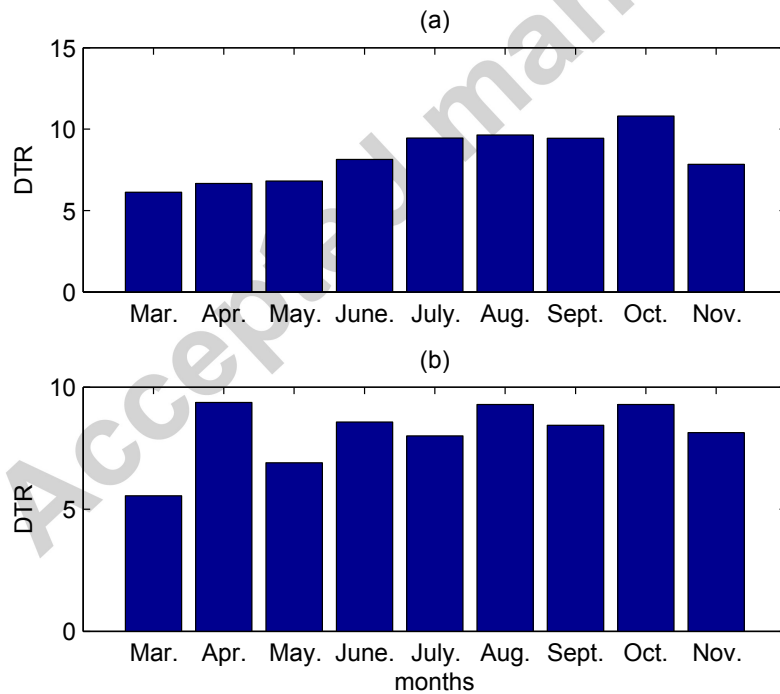


Fig. 2: The monthly mean DTRs at Guangzhou from March to November 2014(a) and 2015(b).

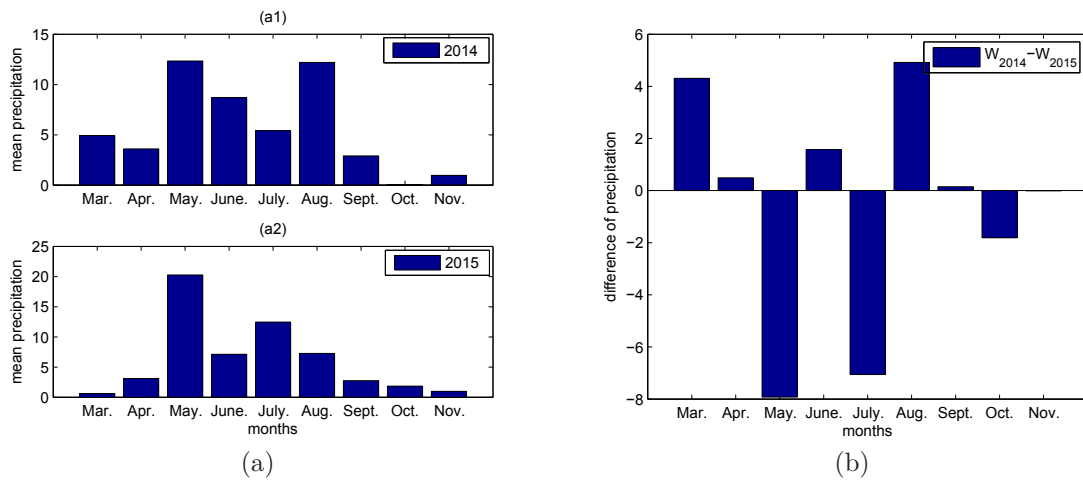


Fig. 3: (a) The monthly precipitation at Guangzhou from March to November in 2014(a1) and 2015(a2). (b) The difference between the monthly precipitations in 2014 and those in 2015 from March to November.

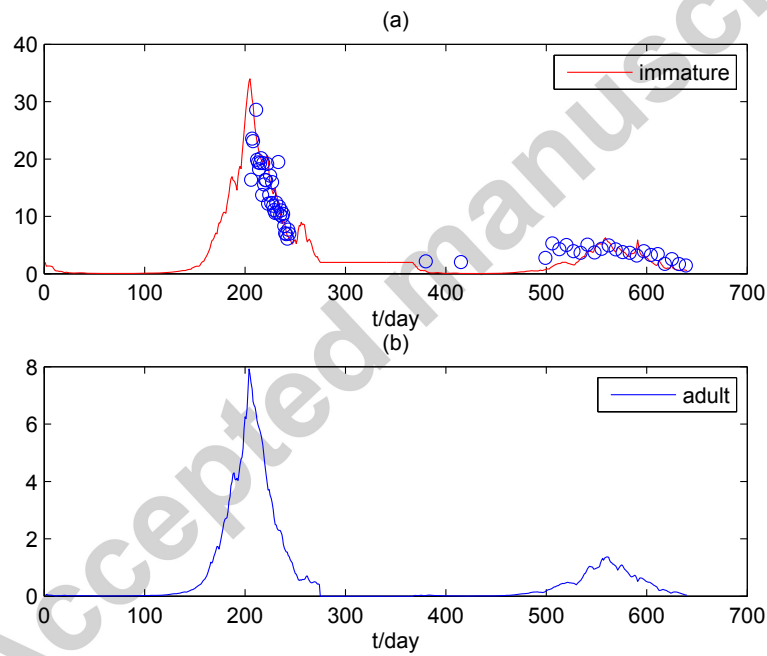


Fig. 4: Goodness fit of the model and data at Guangzhou. Circles represent the BI data, lines show the simulation results with the estimated parameters.

Fig. 5: Comparisons of the BI data and simulation results in Zengcheng, Fanyu and Huadu. Parameters values are shown in Table 2

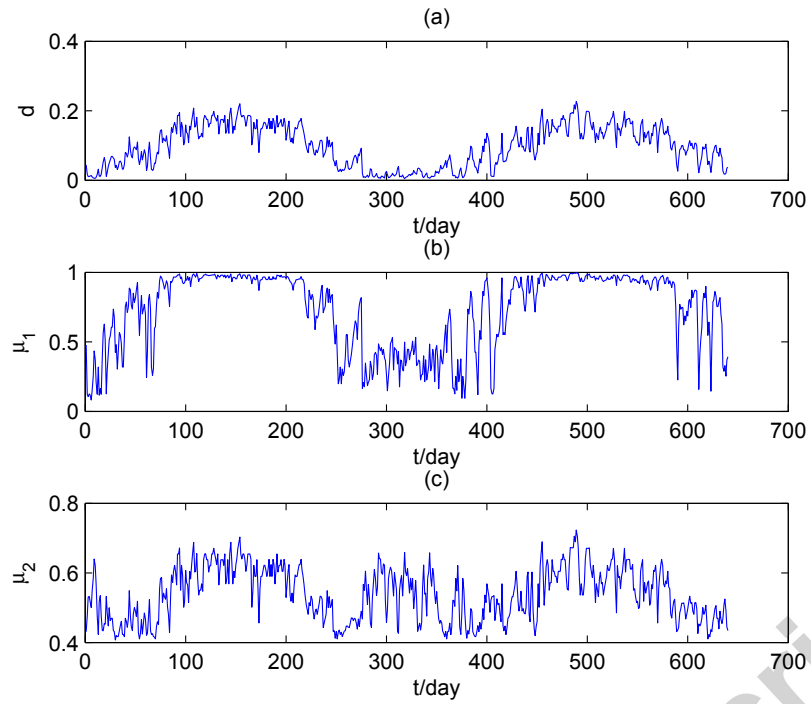


Fig. 6: Time varying parameters. (a) The development rate. (b) The death rate of the immatures. (c) The death rate of the adults. Parameter values are shown in Table 2.

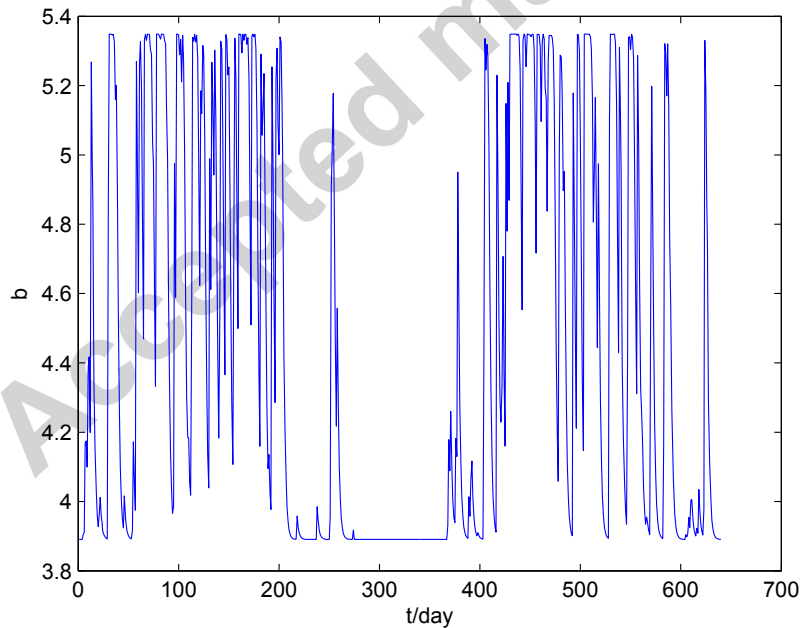


Fig. 7: The time varying egg laying rate simulated with estimated parameter values as shown in Table 2

Fig. 8: Contour plots of the development rate (a) and the survival rate of the immature (b) and adult (c) with respect to the DTR and the daily mean temperature.

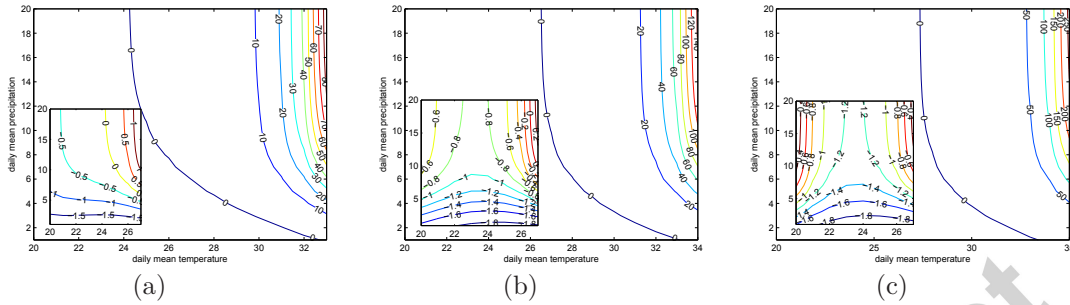


Fig. 9: Contour plots of the difference between the end value (30 days) and the initial value for the immatures with respect to the daily mean temperature and daily mean precipitation. (a) The DTR is 10. (a) The DTR is 8. (a) The DTR is 6.

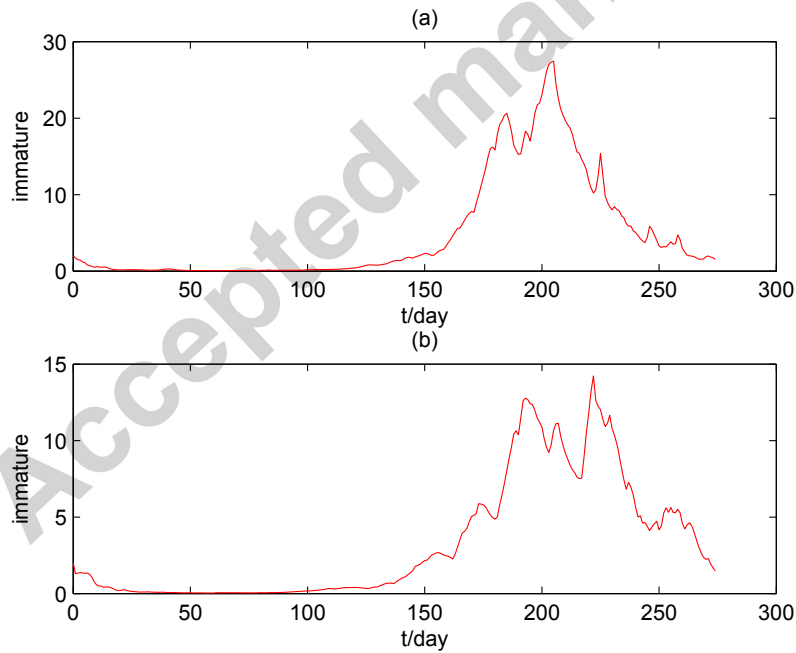


Fig. 10: (a) Simulation results with temperature of 2015 and precipitation of 2014. (b) Simulation results with temperature of 2014 and precipitation of 2015.

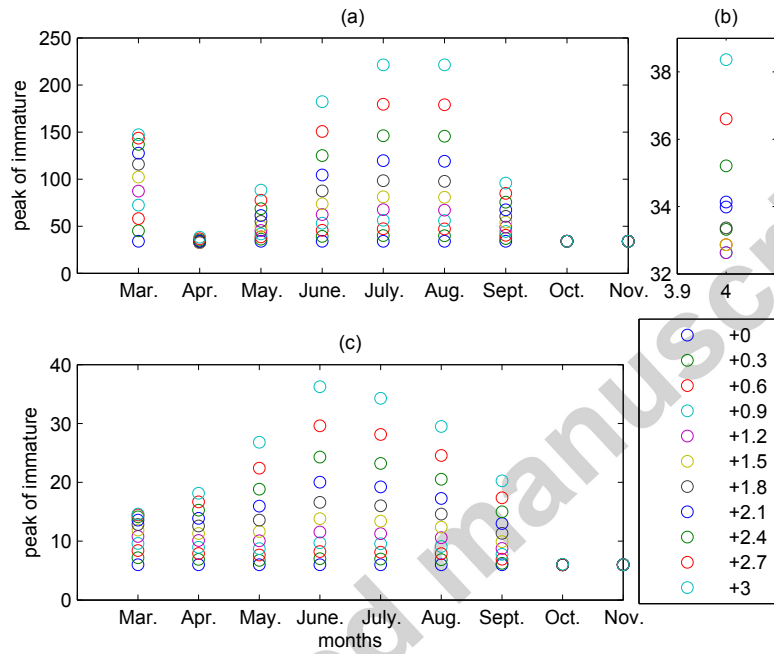


Fig. 11: Effects of increasing daily mean temperature of every month on the peak value of the immature. Circles are simulation results based on temperature and precipitation of 2014(a) and 2015(b), and the temperature change from the baseline value plus 3, with interval 0.3.

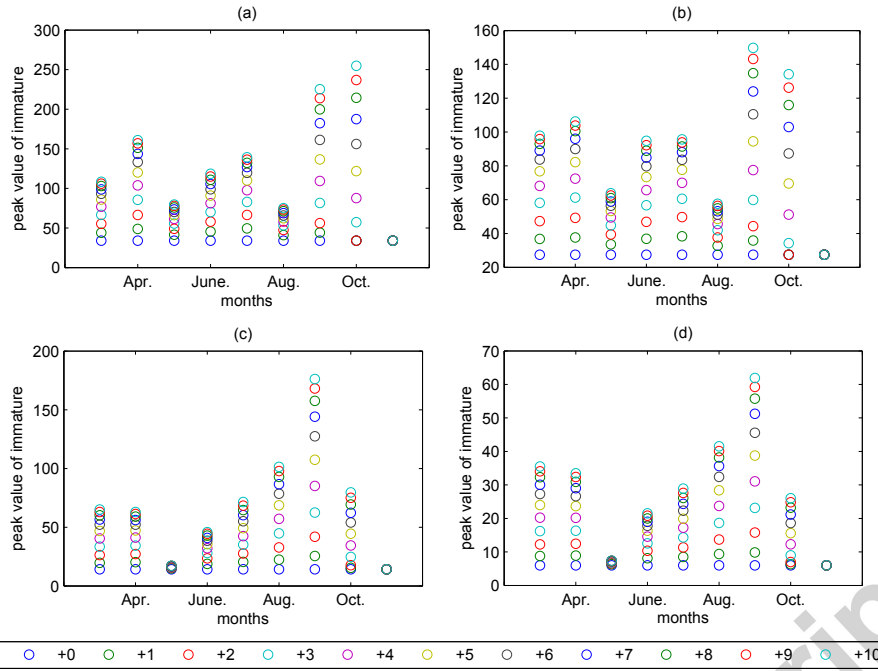


Fig. 12: Effects of increasing daily mean precipitation in every month on the number of mosquitoes. (a) Simulation results based on temperature of 2014 and precipitation of 2014. (b) Simulation results based on temperature of 2015 and precipitation of 2014. (c) Simulation results based on temperature of 2015 and precipitation of 2014. (d) Simulation results based on temperature of 2015 and precipitation of 2015. The daily mean precipitation is increased from the base line value to the base line value plus 10 with interval 1.

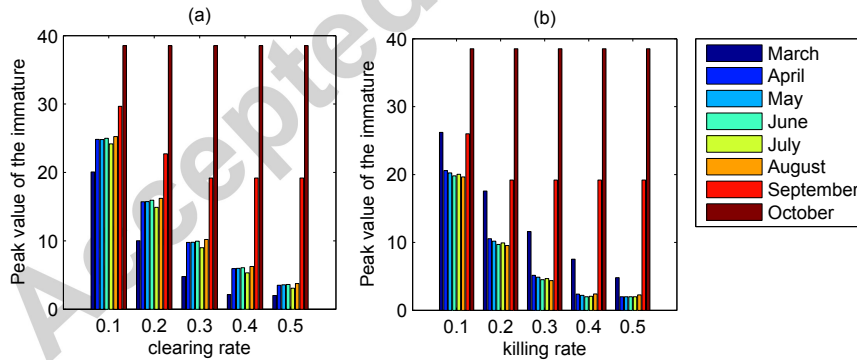


Fig. 13: Effects of interventions on the peak value for the immatures: (a) clearing water to reduce the immature mosquitoes and minimizing the extent of breeding grounds; (b) spraying of insecticide to kill adults. The measure is conducted once a week and lasts for one month in each simulation. The horizontal axis represents the clearing rate (a) and the killing rate (b) respectively, and the vertical axis represents the peak value for the immatures.